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ABSTRACT

This program provides counselors with a means for integrating the individual, with the organizational, aspects of leadership training. In addition to an extensive, annotated bibliography, this monograph consists of seven sections: (1) an historical perspective of women in leadership roles; (2) a review of the literature concerning women and leadership; (3) an overview of current leadership programs and their limitations; (4) a rationale for the Optimizing Women's Leadership Skills (OWLS) program; (5) an exposition of the OWLS program consisting of four units: an organizational assessment, an individual assessment, skill building modules, and structured experiences; (6) a suggested method for implementing the program; (7) recommendations for adapting OWLS to varying settings and clientele. (PPS)

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A PROGRAM FOR OPTIMIZING WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP SKILLS (OWLS)

by

Louise Sandmeyer
Patricia Kohn
Jeanne Baker Driscoll
Charlene H. Harrison
Mary Ann Danowitz Sagaria

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Louise Sandmeyer

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC) AND USERS OF THE ERIC SYSTEM."

Edited and with an Introduction
by
Garry R. Walz and Libby Benjamin

ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Information Center

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Garry R. Walz, *Director*
Libby Benjamin, *Associate Director*
School of Education
The University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan

FOREWORD

Last year we were pleased when Jane McCormick, then President-Elect of NAWDAC, accepted our invitation to serve on the Advisory Commission of the ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Information Center (ERIC/CAPS) at The University of Michigan. From the zesty discussions that took place at that meeting, and from a previous, highly successful joint publication effort with the American School Counselor Association, the idea for a CAPS-NAWDAC collaboration was born. Follow-up communications served to heighten our interest, and Jane advised us that NAWDAC was as excited as we about the proposed venture. We then turned the dream into reality by including it in our work proposal for 1977.

Together, Jane and we decided to focus our efforts on something special for women. Our next step was to identify what we thought were exemplary, highly useful programs designed by women for women. We searched the ERIC system and conferred with our professional friends and came up with two very special programs that met our criteria. The authors agreed to write for us; and the whole procedure, from the first phone call and the signing of contracts to the final mutual approval of the manuscripts, was carried through almost without a hitch. Two very fine monographs are the result: A Career Planning Program for Women: The Experience CUE, by Mary Khosh and John Grimm; and A Program for Optimizing Women's Leadership Skills (OWLS), by a group of writers from Penn State under the senior authorship of Louise Sandmeyer.

The writers of this monograph have been very active in preparing

women to respond more effectively to leadership opportunities. We were particularly attracted to their program because they concentrated on actually providing skill-training in leadership, not just describing and underscoring the need. In the Optimizing Women's Leadership Skills (OWLS) program, women are helped to assess themselves and their organizations, to build attitudes conducive to leadership, and, in a series of structured learning experiences, to practice leadership skills.

Women are having more and more opportunities to assume leadership roles. Many are responding with great enthusiasm and energy. The outcomes, however, are not always to their liking; frustration and disappointment are a frequent byproduct of the experience. As we have learned in other contexts, providing more opportunities for leadership is only part of the answer. Women must be prepared in attitude and competencies to fulfill these new leadership roles.

Presenting the OWLS program in printed form we believe is a major contribution both to individual women who wish to enhance their skills and to facilitators of leadership training workshops. The monograph is intended to be a practical, do-it-yourself series of experiences, and we hope that you will respond to it in that way--as something to be used, not shelved. Those who are stimulated to further investigation will find the ERIC system to be a rich vein of additional resources and materials.

We do have a confession to make, too: We have to admit our partiality to the OWLS orientation. As many readers know, the ERIC/CAPS logo is an owl, selected with great care and meant to depict ERIC as a reservoir of

wisdom. Hopefully, using this monograph will add to your own wisdom about what is required for effective leadership. If this happens, and your own leadership skills are enhanced, then you and we and the authors will all have something to hoot about!

Garry R. Walz and Libby Benjamin

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ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Louise Sandmeyer is a counselor at the Career Development and Placement Center at The Pennsylvania State University. Since earning her M.A. (Student Personnel Administration) at the University of Denver in 1969, Ms. Sandmeyer has served as an adviser to a number of women's organizations including Returning Women Students, Alpha Lambda Delta, and Association for Women Students. She has served on the board of the Y.W.C.A. in Jacksonville, Florida and is currently on the board of the Centre County Women's Resource Center, State College, Pennsylvania. She is a trainer and consultant for the Rape Crisis Center in State College. Ms. Sandmeyer teaches a course in effective personal and career decision-making and has co-authored a book, Skills in Life/Career Planning, which is currently in press. She has developed and led workshops for undergraduate and community women on such topics as value clarification, life-style planning, and assertiveness.

Patricia Kohn's professional background includes teaching and social work. Her interest in training women for leadership positions springs from direct involvement in women's organizations. She was the first president of the Centre County, Pennsylvania Chapter of the National Organization for Women (NOW) and was influential in organizing the Centre County Women's Resource Center where she currently serves on the Board. She is a representative to the Pennsylvania NOW State Board and serves on a local school district committee monitoring Title IX implementation. Ms. Kohn has developed and led awareness sessions for teachers on sexism in education and printed a brochure on sexism in children's books, and is presently involved in developing a health curriculum for adult learners at the Center for Education Research and Evaluation at The Pennsylvania State University.

Jeanne Baker Driscoll, a faculty member of the Department of Counselor Education at Penn State, worked for two years as an Admissions Counselor for the University of Minnesota, Morris, after graduating from that institution in 1969. In 1971 she came to The Pennsylvania State University, earning her M.Ed. in Student Personnel Services in 1973 while working in the Career Development and Placement Center. She is currently writing her Ph.D. thesis in the same field. During her years as a career counselor, she was involved in a variety of programs for women students. She developed and delivered workshops and seminars on topics such as career development issues for women, career exploration, sex-fair counseling and job search strategies. For two years she was a member of the Steering Committee of the Women's Task Force of ACPA. She presently serves on the Commission on the Occupational Status of Women of NVGA. In addition to her present teaching duties, she coordinates the continuing education functions for the department and is responsible for the division resource center. She is the author or co-author of several articles and a monograph.

Charlene H. Harrison is an Assistant Director of Residential Life Programs at The Pennsylvania State University. In addition to her responsibilities for community relations and off-campus students, she has advised the Panhellenic Council at Penn State. Prior to her arrival at Penn State Ms. Harrison worked for the Case Western Reserve University School of Nursing as the admissions counselor. Previous work experiences were at Cleveland State University and The University of Michigan. Her B.A. (Mathematics) and M.A. (Guidance and Counseling) were earned at The University of Michigan. She became a member of Mortar Board as an undergraduate and is a past officer of the State College Mortar Board Alumni group.

Mary Ann Danowitz Sagaria is presently Assistant Director, Residential Life Programs for Developmental Programs at The Pennsylvania State University. She has held positions at the University of Miami, the University of Minnesota, Morris, and the State University of New York, College at Geneseo. She received a B.A. in political science from The Pennsylvania State University, an M.Ed. from the University of Miami and is a doctoral candidate in Higher Education at Penn State. Her experiences with groups have included teaching group dynamics, and conducting staff and leadership development workshops. She has advised many student organizations, including residence hall associations, governing boards and special interest groups.

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INTRODUCTION

Leadership opportunities for women are expanding and women have embraced these new roles with enthusiasm. However, while women may be assuming more positions of leadership, they often are not prepared for their new responsibilities. The authors have worked with both emerging and established organizations in collegiate and community settings. Our observations and frustrations served as a catalyst for the writing of this monograph.

The monograph is divided into seven sections, plus an extensive, annotated bibliography. The first section provides a historical perspective of women in leadership roles, through an examination of the emergence of women's organizations and the socio-political and economic influences upon them.

The second section is a review of the literature regarding women and leadership. Leader performance, leadership styles, and some attributes of female leadership are reviewed.

An overview of current leadership programs and their limitations is

outlined in Section III, and Section IV presents a rationale for the Optimizing Women's Leadership Skills (OWLS) program. The rationale for the program's development emerged from the information gathered for the first three sections and conclusions we drew from reviewing these materials.

The major portion of this monograph, Section V, is an exposition of the OWLS program. The program itself consists of four units: an organizational assessment, an individual assessment, skill building modules, and structured experiences. A method for implementing the program is suggested in the following section, and Section VII concludes the monograph with recommendations for adapting OWLS to varying settings and clientele.

We hope that you will find this model to be a useful guide for planning programs on your own campus or in your own community. We encourage you to be flexible and creative with OWLS, adapting it as a model to meet the needs of the people you serve.

I. HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

To appreciate fully the role of women in leadership, it is helpful to review the social, economic, and leadership responsibilities accorded American women and to identify the social, economic, political, and legal changes that have affected women as leaders. This is an account of the status of women and significant events that have affected their leadership roles since the beginning of the 19th century.

Transition from Work Inside the Home to Work Outside the Home

The first half of the 19th century found women leaving the traditional housewife role and working in more than a hundred industrial occupations (Flexner, 1966). Generally, women possessed few economically saleable skills except for certain types of sewing. The demands of household work and the broadly held assumption of female inferiority prevented women from training for more skilled work and earning better pay. Though women were isolated from one another and inexperienced in organizing, and though they generally received little support from men, still they were able to make some attempts to mobilize to improve their working conditions.

Expansion of Higher Education for Women

Throughout the 1800's higher education for women grew through the expansion of seminaries that taught both academic and domestic arts (Chafe, 1977). By the end of the Civil War these traditional studies were broadened to include "greater access for the life of the mind" (p. 26).

Dedication to women's education led to the creation of Vassar, Smith and Bryn Mawr, an outcome which gave women the opportunity to prove that they could perform as well as men academically.

From Trade Organizations to Women's Clubs to the Suffrage Movement

Working outside the home and expanded educational opportunities provided impetus for the rapid growth of women's clubs in the latter part of the 19th century. These clubs offered an escape from household and family cares, with an initial emphasis on women's self-improvement and later, on acquiring civic consciousness.

The most significant collective activity of women in that century was the women's suffrage movement. Spearheaded by a few talented and determined individuals, the women at first formed a loose federation, but later, through major reorganization, developed a strong leadership cadre with a large working force. Along with advantageous economic and social conditions, the enfranchisement of women was due largely to the political sophistication and determination of this national organization whose efforts continued without ceasing for more than 50 years (Stanton, 1969).

Major Political and Economic Changes and Their Effects on Women's Organizations

The Industrial Revolution is often identified as the most influential single force in altering the status of women at the beginning of the 20th century. Not only did it practically abolish home industry, it also caused a migration from farm to city and created a need for more individuals with

more extensive training.

World War I and World War II created labor shortages that resulted in women being hired for jobs at higher pay rates than they had ever been offered before. The impact and duration of the second World War helped to weaken the myth that women are incapable of performing jobs previously reserved for men. The aftermath of the war saw women claiming better employment, wages, and conditions. Many social changes were occurring at the same time. The changing perspective and reference to the place of women in society, their relation to their families and to their position in the occupational sphere, can be traced through the changes that took place in women's organizations.

The foci of established groups and developing groups were changing from "individual satisfaction or purely social intercourse" (Breckinridge, 1972, p. 42) to occupational and professional interests. This shift in orientation can be traced to the founding of many professional organizations such as the American Home Economics Association (AHEA, 1908), the American Association of University Women (AAUW, 1884) and the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors (NAWDAC, 1916).

The second half of the 20th century is highlighted by three forces which are interrelated and which continue to shape our lives: (a) legislation prohibiting discrimination on the basis of sex; (b) the women's movement which began in the mid 1960's and continues to have profound effects in many spheres of society; and (c) the changing status of women, a dynamic movement manifested largely through changing attitudes, mores and norms.

Legislation. Since 1963 four laws have been enacted to assure women equality in employment and education.

The Equal Pay Act, passed in 1963, promised equal pay for equal work.

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was amended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 to prohibit employers from discriminating against an individual with respect to hiring, firing, promotion, or fringe benefits, or on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

In 1964 Executive Order 11246 was amended to apply to most public and private schools, colleges, and universities. This Order prohibits discrimination by requiring elimination of all discriminatory conditions, whether intentional or inadvertent, and affirmative action to recruit, employ, and promote qualified members of groups formerly excluded.

Title IX of the Education Amendment of 1972 prohibits educational institutions from denying admission to or discriminating on the basis of sex from any educational programs or activities receiving Federal funds. This legislation is of particular importance because it goes beyond employment opportunities to educational opportunities. Specifically, it affects most student organizations and athletic teams, and admission requirements for colleges, universities, and professional schools.

The women's movement of the 1960's. No one force has done more to heighten the concern with equality than the women's movement of the 1960's. The movement is a combination of a variety of groups, styles, and organizations.

The movement has two branches. One consists of large and prominent

organizations such as the National Organization for Women (NOW), the Women's Equity Action League (WEAL), the Federally Employed Women (FEW), and the National Women's Political Caucus (NWPC). The activities of this branch tend to focus on legal and economic problems, with specific emphasis on the problems of working women. These organizations all began as hierarchical national organizations lacking a grass-roots base, and tended to be organized along traditional and formal lines.

The other branch is comprised of many small groups engaged in a variety of activities. It tends to have a mass base without a national organization or national leadership. Its membership is younger and more homogeneous than that of the more traditional branch in that it tends to be predominantly white, middle class, and college educated (Freeman, 1975). This second branch has much in common with the youth movement.

Changing status of women. The women's movement has had great impact. In some areas the relationship between movement and impact is easily discernable; in others, existing social conditions are so closely intermeshed with the movement that it is tenuous to isolate the movement as the major influence. Regardless of the source, however, the following changes can be identified (Freeman, 1975):

1. Reconditioning American people to accept sexual equality as the norm of social and personal behavior, thereby prompting both women and men to question the role of the female in American society;

2. Publicizing women's activities and achievements, which has had the effect of legitimizing women's rights as a relevant public concern;

3. Creating a climate of expectations that something should be done . . . about educational and employment equality;

4. Providing information, data and testimony . . . (for policy changes), grass-roots research, and grass-roots support; and,

5. Developing many social service projects and small autonomous groups emphasizing counseling, referrals, reforms, and education. (pp. 234-235)

What Does All of This Mean?

These changes have had profound impact on women as leaders. First, the context in which women exercise leadership has changed and broadened. Second, women's groups are emerging that are organized around less traditional issues. Third, established organizations are reexamining their structures and purposes.

Broadening of the areas of women's leadership. One of the most significant determinants of a woman's role in the labor force and of her economic and social status is her level of education. Though women in general still do not remain in school as long as men, there has been an increase in percentage and absolute numbers of women entering degree programs. Women are increasingly in a more competitive position on the bachelor's level and are beginning to make some headway in professional fields. More and more women are also pursuing degrees in traditionally male dominated areas.

As educational attainment is increasing, so are the percentage of women entering the work force and the length of work life for women. Also, as a direct outcome of increased education and affirmative action,

more women are assuming management positions in business and industry and administrative positions in education.

Women are experiencing a greater demand for leadership in their personal lives as well. As more women remain single, marry later, or divorce, they find themselves more involved in interests outside of traditional household roles. Whether a woman's main focus is her career or her family and household or a combination of these, she must exercise considerably more leadership and direction in a multiplicity of roles.

Emerging women's groups. Society is often unaccepting or nonsupportive of a woman who chooses other than a traditional role. Women's organizations and groups can play a significant part in helping women to cope better with societal and economic demands as well as daily activities. The positions women hold in organizations and the roles they assume in them are important ties between the individual and the total society (Ferriss, 1971).

In recent years the number of women's organizations has increased, membership has grown, and shifts have occurred in organizational interests and affiliation. While there has been a decline in membership in rural life organizations, in hereditary organizations, and in fraternal and ethnic organizations, membership in general women's clubs (federated clubs) has remained fairly constant. On the other hand, the expanding interests of women are indicated by increases in membership in sports and recreation-oriented organizations, religious affiliated organizations, and self-improvement organizations. The greatest membership growth has occurred in

groups and organizations concerned with improving the status of women in our society--be it through education, employment, politics, economics, or lifestyles (Barrer, 1975).

Women's groups are emerging that are organized around less traditional issues. Some of these have developed as part of the women's movement, but all of them are manifestations of the heterogeneity of the female population and the diversity of their needs. Many of these groups are small, consisting of from five to thirty women. Cohesiveness is often derived from personal contact and affiliation and from feminist publications. These groups may assume a variety of functions, but they are quite consistent in their organizational styles (Freeman, 1975). Common characteristics of such groups are a conscious lack of formal structure, a conscious lack of hierarchy, and a sharing of tasks. The groups are not purely democratic, and there is usually a power structure; but elections, voting, and designated authoritative positions are an exception. Membership is purely subjective: Participants are those who consider themselves participants, and often control stems from peer-group pressure.

These groups exhibit the characteristics of participatory groups and occasionally develop an informal structure that coincides with fulfilling an immediate need. Freeman identifies four conditions which often characterize groups organized around nontraditional issues:

1. A task orientation,
2. Membership that is relatively small and homogeneous,
3. A high degree of communication,

4. A low degree of specialization.

Groups with these characteristics may experience severe organizational stress because of the difficulty of focusing participants' energy on productive tasks and the large amount of time required to build up the trust, acceptance, and mutual understanding necessary for successful functioning. Therefore, a great amount of the members' time and energy must be spent on group process rather than on identifying and working to achieve specific objectives.

Many nontraditional groups have specific issue orientations and exist independent of national or regional ties. When the issues for which they were developed cease to exist or become irrelevant, these organizations may have to set new goals or disband. Another common factor in such groups is their rejection of the formal bureaucratic structure in the external environment. This can inhibit their effectiveness if their objectives are tied to societal change and they depend upon educating the external community. The discussion of nontraditional groups has focused primarily on the organizational dynamics because a major thrust of OWLS is the strengthening of the intergroup components in these organizations.

Reexamination of purposes of established organizations. While groups emerging from the women's movement are focusing on nontraditional issues with a minimal amount of structure, many established organizations are undergoing intensive organizational analysis through membership surveys, goal setting sessions, and observations by external consultants. For some groups this has resulted in a clearer articulation of purpose.

Some established organizations are broadening their appeal to younger or new members, changing bylaws to provide for greater participation through shorter terms of office and increased representation. Thus, many professional and educational organizations are no longer viewed as "closed" or as interested only in promoting the status quo. Others have created a department, office or committee concerned with the status of women. Many predominately male professional organizations have appointed a subgroup or caucus to work on women's concerns, focusing on employment rights or serving as a clearinghouse to identify women candidates for positions.

There is little evidence that established traditional groups are changing from a formalized organizational pattern to one of less structure; rather, they tend to experience a decline in membership and participation if the organization no longer seems relevant to members' needs.

Summary

As the early organizing of women around work-related issues prepared the way for self-improvement clubs, and later for civic and professional organizations, today's organizations are preparing women for new roles and responsibilities that will broaden their scope of involvement and influence.

The social and economic conditions of the 20th century, in general, are more compatible to the changing status of women than those of the past. Witness, for example, the dramatic changes that have occurred in women's roles and responsibilities during the first ten years of the contemporary women's movement as compared with those that occurred during 70 years of

the earlier women's rights movement.

In this period of rapid change, it becomes even more important for women's organizations to provide members with the knowledge and skills they need to become strong and effective leaders.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

We are reviewing the literature for two reasons: to see if there are differences in the leadership styles of men and women and to determine if there is a need for a leadership skills program for women. Leader performance, leadership styles, and some attributes of female leadership are examined in this review.

It is important first to establish a working definition of leadership. Although one may easily locate many definitions in texts on leadership and groups, Napier and Gershenfeld (1973) have expressed our viewpoint quite well. "Leadership is defined as the frequency with which an individual may be identified as one who influences or directs the behavior of others within the group" (p. 153). So, the leader is that person whose role in the group is more powerful (i.e., influential) than that of others. Nothing in the definition makes any reference to gender. Since the leadership function can theoretically be performed by any member, our next question has to do with who attempts to lead. Several factors are involved in that issue:

> The degree of coordination required by the task, the ability to diagnose, the ability to perform the needed behavior, the importance of the task, the possibilities of action leading to success, the feelings of personal acceptance or rejection. (op. cit., p. 153)

In addition to possessing abilities related to accomplishing tasks, those attempting to lead need to feel confident that they can perform the function and a sense of support from the group members.

Another writer defines four variables involved in leadership: (1) the

characteristics of the leader; (2) the attitudes, needs, and personal characteristics of the followers; (3) the characteristics of the organization (its purpose, structure, and nature of tasks performed); and (4) the social, economic, and political milieu. A comprehensive leadership training program must take all these variables into account (McGregor, 1966).

In keeping with our society's stereotypic view of male as dominant and female as submissive it is commonly assumed that women will have difficulty with positions of leadership. Some of the literature supports that hypothesis. Megargee (1969) matched high dominant and low dominant men and women (4 groups) in pairs tc perform two tasks. High dominant women felt inhibited from assuming leadership, even with low dominant men, whether the task was male-oriented or sex-neutral.

Schein (1973) asked male middle managers to describe males in general, females in general, and successful middle managers. There was no resemblance between their ratings of the characteristics of women and those of successful middle managers. When she made the same request of female middle managers two years later (1975), the results were essentially the same. However, the women were more apt to believe that the characteristics of successful managers could be ascribed to both sexes, not just to men. This finding implies a change in attitude toward women, a very crucial part of reducing sex-role stereotyping of leaders.

Bartol (1974) examined the effect of dominance in female or male leaders on the satisfaction of subordinates. She found that satisfaction with the team interaction was significantly greater among male-member groups

with high-dominant female leaders. However, for those same male-member groups, satisfaction with the task structure was higher with high-dominant male leaders. Women followers in mixed-member groups with high-dominant male leaders had low satisfaction scores.

Jacobsen and Effertz (1974) examined sex roles and leadership. They requested subordinates and leaders to rate the leaders' performance. When the performance of the male and female leaders was equal, the female leaders perceived themselves, and were perceived by subordinates, as doing a better job than male leaders. Why did the women rate themselves higher and receive better ratings? Perhaps as leaders they gained confidence from performing well; perhaps the subordinates were "surprised" to see the task accomplished. The actual reasons cannot be determined. However, it is important to remember that female leaders actually performed as well as (and were perceived as better than) male leaders. This indicates that standards do not need to be lowered for women; on the other hand, it does not support the notion that a woman must be better qualified than a man to hold a leadership position. Essentially, the authors conclude that, given equal preparation, "differences in performance between men and women will more likely be a matter of perception than a matter of fact" (p. 395).

Chapman and Luthans (1975) agree that both women and men can be effective leaders. Their review of the literature suggests no difference between male and female leadership styles, but does indicate a difference in leadership behaviors. It appears that women are more accommodating of subordinates, but do not operate in a style different from men in leadership

positions. They learned that, at the time of their literature search, neither men nor women thought very highly of the abilities of female leaders.

Denmark and Diggory (1966) questioned leaders and members of college sororities and fraternities concerning leadership style. Contrary to their expectations, they learned that women exhibit somewhat less--and receive approval for fewer--authoritarian practices than do men. When asked to describe characteristics of "good" leaders, men and women were in close agreement. However, the descriptions showed little similarity to the actual or desired behaviors by which they characterized present leaders. It can only be concluded that the "authoritarian" style is very complex. Sex stereotyping may well have been a factor in the responses.

The following study points out that women do have or can learn the attributes of leadership. Denmark, McKenna, Juran and Greenberg (1976) asked observers to record nonverbal interactions of dyads in a university setting. The subjects were males and females ranging in status from deans to graduate students. The researchers were surprised to learn that there were no significant differences between males and females on any of the measures (smiling, arm movement, forward lean, eye contact, head nodding, back lean, straight lean, object manipulation, and self-manipulation). Another intriguing result was the behavior of higher status subjects. They showed more affiliative behavior on most of the measures than did lower status subjects. Females of higher status showed less, not more, affiliative behavior with their own sex than did lower status females;

the converse was true for males. Smiling occurred more often in lower status subjects than high, but was shown more by higher status females than males.

Since universities are organizations which are more dynamic than static, the literature predicts that a more participative leadership style would be desirable. It has been socially acceptable for women to acquire the attributes of the participative leader, such as responsiveness and sensitivity to others. Research data seem to support the idea that women have greater concern for relationships among people than men. This quality should be recognized as a strongly positive indicator of the leadership potential of women. Many of the so-called sex differences in ability, attitudes, and personality are not based on hard data, but on sex-role stereotyping. Differences in individuals who happen to be males or females should not be generalized and labeled as sex differences.

In her book The Not-So-Helpless Female (1973), Sommers discusses organizations and leadership. She agrees with Denmark when she says that many organizations constructed from male-oriented models "are too caught up with the business at hand to take the time for 'sensitivity'" (p. 78). She advocates a balanced approach: Make sure members feel able to participate, but avoid becoming an encounter group. She believes leaders must understand the power in organizations and should be knowledgeable about issues on which groups should rightfully spend their energies.

Collegiate women who function in leadership positions cannot be uniformly defined and placed in a single category. Their individual differences

are very evident. Some operate quite effectively in a democratic style; others work best within an authoritarian framework. Some prefer to delegate many of the organization's responsibilities among the members; others are integrally involved in all aspects of the group's activities. Most are respected by the members who have designated them as leaders.

A common problem bothers these collegiate leaders: They lack confidence in their ability to serve as effective leaders. Some women manifest this feeling by assuming an overconfident air; others respond by deciding any task is too large for them to undertake. This underestimation of self has a definite impact on their leadership effectiveness.

Other problems are evident in varying degrees. Some collegiate women leaders need to learn more about parliamentary procedures. Many are unaware of group processes and the effect the group has on the individual. They need to learn techniques for increasing active participation among the members. Most would benefit from programs designed to enhance communication skills. Many are unaware of the impact of their surroundings on the organization. A number do not realize how their leadership style affects the members of the group.

In short, collegiate women leaders need a leadership skill-building program which is aimed at increasing their knowledge of the dynamics of leadership, enhancing their ability to promote individual participation in the group, and augmenting their leadership competencies.

The literature shows us that women can, and do, function effectively as leaders. The research also indicates that women need to develop more

self-confidence and learn team-building skills. A comprehensive leadership training program designed to train women to be leaders must first help women to recognize their unique strengths, build upon those, and then teach women the skills necessary for effective leadership.

III. OVERVIEW OF EXISTING PROGRAMS

The awakened interest in developing women's potential has given birth to a wide number of instructional programs specifically designed for women. Whether these programs take the form of adult education courses, hour-long seminars, day-long encounter groups, or single-session training experiences, they are all directed toward women's self-improvement.

Two General Types of Programs

Beverly L. Kaye and Adele M. Scheele (1975) conducted a survey of 60 leadership training programs which revealed that two types of programs are currently being offered. The first, a life-planning model, teaches women skills that enable them to take charge of and direct their own lives. Included in these courses is training in negotiating one's importance, solving problems creatively, establishing personal goals. The second category concerns specific management or organizational competencies in such fields as public relations, managing finances, writing proposals, conducting meetings.

One limitation that we see in these programs is that they restrict their focus to either the organization or the individual. For example, the sole emphasis of work-related courses is the organization. The objective of these courses is to teach women the most effective way to meet organizational needs within the existing pyramidal framework. Little attention is given to the individual woman--her special aptitudes, her special needs. On the other hand, the life-planning courses concentrate

entirely on the individual, specifically on developing individual abilities. Such courses fail to treat the individual as a part of a larger structure and fail to teach her how to function within an organizational context.

Such a narrow focus results in still another limitation--selective applicability of learned skills. Consequently, the graduate of a program in management may lack essential interpersonal skills, while the graduate of a life-planning course may find her insights insufficient when operating in an organizational setting. It appears that although programs in both categories may be quite effective in meeting specific needs, these programs do not deal with leadership as a factor of both the individual and the organization. In fact, both aspects are important and should be considered simultaneously for maximal benefit.

Sensitivity/Personal Growth Groups

There are other types of training programs that also deserve our consideration. One of the most popular is sensitivity/personal growth groups. These programs are not specifically designed for female enrollees nor is their primary goal the development of leadership potential. We are considering them here because they are widely offered and are sometimes viewed as a springboard to accepting the challenge of leadership. The sexual integration of such groups stems from the assumption that men and women need the same things in order to become more self-accepting.

Ann Harris, Director of the Springfield, Massachusetts Center for Human Development, reviews one such program ("The TORI Model of Change and the Changing Woman," 1975) and illustrates how it fails to aid women by

of student organizations. The purpose of such programs is, for example, to instruct an officer in how to be a good treasurer. The most obvious limitation of these programs is that their focus is on the office, not on the individual holding the office. So while the treasurer may develop some expertise in handling money as a result of such a training program, little or no emphasis will have been given to developing leadership skills in general. What is learned thus has limited transferability to other settings that require leadership skills.

All of these programs serve a specific and necessary function, but their specificity precludes their being considered as broad-based leadership training programs.

IV. RATIONALE FOR OPTIMIZING WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP SKILLS (OWLS)

A leadership training program designed to enhance and/or develop leadership skills should include components that focus on the individual as well as on her interaction with the organization. If we as counselors neglect either of these components in workshop planning, we are ignoring the important linkage that exists between member motivation and organizational goal attainment.

What the organization's expectations are for its individual members is as important as what the individual's expectations are for the organization. In order for an individual to make the transition from joiner to member, or member to leader, she must believe that what she hopes to gain from group participation is compatible with the organization's expectations of her. This requires some assessment of both the individual and the organization.

Assessment of the individual means looking at what she brings to the organization in terms of skills and clarifying what she wants from the organization in terms of satisfaction or reward. Assessment of the organization means looking at how well the organization meets its purposes through utilization of members' skills and how well it provides its members with a sense of satisfaction and accomplishment.

The model that we present here is based on skill development and allows for such assessment. We identify skill levels, which provides us with information about what needs to be taught and gives us a point from which to

they can apply in most facets of their lives. Regardless of the lifestyle a woman chooses, she will be able to utilize the skills she develops through leadership training. The mission of counselors is to help individuals to maximize their potential. We are doing a disservice to women if we do not equip them with skills necessary to lead, whether it be in business, education, government, or at home.

The group approach to leadership skill development stems from a base that is both practical and philosophical. With budgets tightening, workloads increasing, and accountability becoming a byword in our profession, counselors must maximize the time spent with students--the group approach allows us to do so. Even if this were not the case, the group approach would still be preferable. When we teach leadership skills, what better place to do so than within a group setting? Being with others allows women to share their fears, hopes, and successes and thus learn from one another. Because one of the factors that frequently inhibits women from assuming leadership positions is a concern for how others will see them in that position, this learning becomes invaluable. The opportunity for sharing also helps them to assess their leadership roles more realistically.

V. MODEL

A. Organizational Assessment

We can view an organization as a composite of what each member brings to it in terms of individual abilities, interests, values and needs. However, an organization is more than just the sum of the contributions of its members. When two people form a partnership, each contributes his/her individual characteristics and what is formed from this blend is a relationship that has an identity of its own. An organization can be seen in the same way. When members interact with one another, sharing, learning, and growing together around a common purpose, they become more than a group of ten or twenty women--they become a synergistic organization.

Purpose

Many groups never achieve our definition of an organization because they are unclear about their purpose. Knowing why the group exists is fundamental and perhaps the first step to organizational assessment. For established groups, determination of purpose can begin with an examination of the original charter or any written goal statement. If a group has a national affiliation, it will be necessary to compare the national purpose to the goals of the local group. Newly-formed groups will need to identify clearly their reason for being and state that in written form.

Activity

If groups are unsure of their purpose or lack agreement as to what it

is or should be, the following exercise is helpful. Representatives of an organization attending the workshop can then take this exercise back to their organization. It is preferable that someone not in the organization facilitate this exercise.

Ask members individually to list what each sees as the primary purpose for the organization's existence. How or why did the members come together in the first place? Then record each member's response on a chalkboard.

Questions for discussion

1. Do the statements reflect a similarity of purpose?

2. Is there a difference between how old and new members perceive the purpose?

3. Is there a difference between how the leadership and general membership view the purpose?

4. What are the similarities between the purposes as stated by the members and the formal purpose stated in the charter or constitution?

The discussion around these questions can help the members determine how much they agree on the primary purpose, whether they understand the purpose, and what meaning it has for them as a group.

Activity

If an organization finds it difficult to determine a primary purpose or if there is lack of consensus about the purpose, the following exercise will be useful.

Ask them as a group to record the organization's activities in the

past year. What do the recorded activities tell them about their purpose or lack of purpose?

This exercise will help the members to define the purpose in terms of past activities and provide an opportunity for them to discuss any meaningful related issues. Once an organization is aware of its purpose, the members should evaluate how relevant that purpose is to their present organization. The purpose may have held great meaning for the founders, but may be just a string of words to the present members.

Environment

Organizations do not operate in isolation. The organization and its members are part of a larger community which can have as significant an impact on the workings of the organization as the organization can have on the community. Therefore, it is vital that an organization understand the environment in which it exists and interacts. For example, the current women's movement has been able to accomplish more in a shorter period of time than the suffragettes of the 1920's because the environment we live in today is more supportive of women's rights.

Questions for discussion

1. What population in your community do you serve or wish to influence?
2. Is the community aware of your existence?
3. How does the community accept your organization's purposes, membership, and leadership?
4. Are there other organizations in the community with purposes similar to yours? How are you similar to or different from them? What is

your relationship with these organizations?

5. Do you have county, state, or national affiliations? What is your responsibility to these affiliations?

Not only is it important for members to examine their external environment, they will also need to examine the organization's internal climate. Assessing the internal climate serves as a barometer of member satisfaction with the workings of the organization. The group should respond to the following questions as a whole, not as individual members.

Questions for discussion

1. Who joins your organization?

2. How important is affiliation with your organization to you, the members?

3. What characteristics do you ascribe to individuals who join your organization? How are you similar to or different from other members of your organization? (This latter question enables individuals in the group to assess how they differ from the group as a whole.)

4. What is the level of members' commitment? (Members can judge this by considering the extent of their participation in the organization's activities.)

5. Do you consider members capable of performing the tasks necessary for the accomplishment of the organization's purposes?

Power and Authority

Power and authority are important factors in both the internal and

external environment of an organization. A common reason for individuals coming together and forming organizations is their desire to establish a power base. Organizations should consider two aspects of power in their assessment. One is the amount of influence individual members exercise within the group. The other is the degree of power and influence the organization exerts beyond its boundaries.

In order to determine where power lies within the organization, participants need to examine the formal power structure (e.g., who is the President, committee chairperson, etc.) as well as the informal lines of authority. It would not be surprising for participants to discover that sometimes the people who are the most powerful in some organizations are not the elected leaders.

The following questions will help members to determine who has the power within the organization. These questions are to be answered individually and then discussed by the organization's workshop representatives.

Questions for discussion

1. Whom would you select to be the spokesperson for your organization?
2. Who in the organization delegates responsibility?
3. If you have a task to accomplish, whose advice would you seek?
4. When you talk with others about the organization, to which individual do you refer with pride?

The degree of power an organization exerts outside its boundaries is another aspect of power that is important to assess. Whether or not the

organization wishes actively to influence others outside the organization, some evaluation of it will occur by others in the community.

Questions for discussion

1. Do other groups seek your advice, opinions, and support?

2. Are nonmembers aware of or responsive to the activities of your group?

3. Does the community actively seek your endorsement of projects and programs?

4. How would the community generally describe your organization? Innovative? Reactive? Easily identified? Little known? Active? Passive? High or low status? How does this affect the power your organization exerts within the community?

Leadership

While power and authority are significant aspects of leadership, additional elements such as leadership behaviors, styles, and patterns should also be part of the assessment. The term leader is used here to refer to the elected or appointed positions people hold. Leadership is a broader term referring to the amount of influence any member has. This distinction should be made in responding to the questions.

Questions for discussion

1. Who are the designated leaders and how were they selected?

2. How are leadership positions defined both formally and informally?

3. What are the leaders' functions both in and outside the group?

How much power do those who exercise leadership have?

How is that similar to or different from the power exercised by the designated leaders?

4. In what ways does the leadership exercise power?

5. Compare the use of power by formal and informal leaders.

6. What is the style of the leaders of your organization--autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire?

Communication Patterns

Communication patterns, both formal and informal, are a facet of leadership, and identification of these patterns helps to determine the relationships among members.

Questions for discussion

1. Formal networks--What is the pattern as dictated by the structure?

2. Informal networks--How is information unofficially transmitted?

3. Where and how does communication take place outside of announced meetings?

4. Do certain subgroups within the organization seem to have their own informal communication network?

If so, what impact does that have on the formal network?

5. What formal and informal communication patterns exist between the group and the external environment?

Decision-Making

Often groups are not cognizant of the processes they use to make

decisions. This lack of awareness can have several results: Members may express *dissatisfaction with group decisions*, decisions may be made that do not reflect the best thinking and experience of group members, confusion and a lack of cooperation may occur among organization members, the organization may lack unity in achieving its goals and purposes.

In order for groups to analyze their decision-making process they must determine whether they use a systematic approach to decision-making, whether they seek a high level of member participation in decision-making, and whether some members are more influential than others in making the group's decisions.

Questions for discussion

1. How are decisions made in your organization?

2. Under what circumstances are most group decisions made? Who makes them? Where are they made, e.g., formal meetings, in committee, informal discussion among a few members?

3. How much do the organization's leaders share decision-making responsibilities?

4. What factors within your organization affect decision-making, e.g., group size, influential members, formal leaders, the presence of conflict?

5. When decisions are made, who or what influences you the most and why?

6. How does the organization evaluate past decisions?

Organizational Maintenance

It is easy to get caught up in the housekeeping chores of running an organization. Keeping records, chairing committees, and responding to correspondence, although essential to organizational maintenance, are often time consuming and may become the central focus of the organization. When an organization allows this to occur, it can lose sight of its broader purposes. Conversely, an organization can focus exclusively on the broader purpose and neglect those tasks that are essential to day-to-day activities. Therefore, it is important to assess where members' energies are focused and how much emphasis is placed on maintenance functions.

Questions for discussion

1. What amount of time is spent and who is responsible for the following activities:

   Recruitment and training of new members

   Formal communications, i.e., newsletters, mailings, minutes

   Fiscal operations such as collecting dues, raising funds

   Recordkeeping

   Determination of meeting time, place

   Care of organizational property, i.e., office space, equipment, supplies

2. Who initiates and designates these organizational maintenance activities?

3. In your opinion, does your organization spend too little or too much time on organizational maintenance?

4. Does your organization evaluate its progress toward its stated goals? If so, how?

5. How does your organization communicate its goals and purposes to newer members?

6. How does your organization provide for the transition between outgoing and newly elected officers?

7. How does your organization respond to change, both internal and external? Does it encourage or initiate change?

8. If your organization is one in which there is a high turnover of membership, how do you provide for continuity?

B. Individual Assessment

Member attrition is high when organizations fail to recognize and meet the individual needs of members. Member satisfaction is increased when the organization's goals are in accord with members' personal goals. Therefore, it is to the organization's benefit for individual members to assess their reasons for group participation.

Individual Goals--*Questions for discussion*

1. What were your initial reasons for joining the organization, i.e., to make friends, to learn new skills, to have political impact, to give service to others?

2. How long have you been a member? How has the status of your membership changed? Are you satisfied with your present role and your

degree of participation?

3. How are your personal goals similar to the organization's goals?

4. How do you respond when some of your goals are not being met?

Individual Contributions--*Questions for discussion*

1. What skills do you bring to the organization? How are your skills being utilized?

2. How well do you think you do the following activities:

Delegate responsibility

Initiate an activity

Communicate one-to-one and in a group setting

Make decisions

Establish priorities, set goals

Manage time

Influence others

Chair a committee

Resolve conflicts

3. What skills would you like to develop or improve?

4. How would other members assess your contributions? Are you satisfied with that assessment?

Individual Satisfaction--*Questions for discussion*

1. How have you benefited from your involvement with the organization? To what extent has it met your initial expectations?

2. How would you like things to be different for you within the

organization?

3. What have you learned about yourself?

C. Skill Modules

The modules represented in OWLS are designed to help members develop skills that will benefit both themselves and the organization of which they are a part. The program consists of six key modules that are critical to leadership development for women. Other modules could certainly be added, but these six provide a good foundation for women who have assumed or wish to assume leadership roles in either emerging or established organizations.

The description of each module includes the objective, fundamental concepts, and related activities. The related activities may be supplemented or replaced by other activities of the facilitator's choice. The bibliography includes several resources that contain additional activities.

Module I. Group Building

Objectives

To provide participants with an understanding of the importance of group building. To involve participants in a group building experience.

Concepts

1. Group building is the process by which organizations bind their members into a cohesive working unit. It facilitates a blend of individual and organizational expectations.

2. Group building must be viewed as an activity that occurs not only in the early stages of a group's development but also, if group cohesion is to be maintained, throughout the life of the organization.

3. Group building is an organizational maintenance activity which promotes member satisfaction and, when ignored, results in member discontent.

4. Group building should include both the assimilation of new members and the rejuvenation of members of long standing.

5. Organizational goals are accomplished when members work as a cohesive unit. That cohesive unit is developed through group building activities.

Activity--Individual

Instruct the group to form dyads. Each dyad must be composed of members from the same organization. When the dyads are formed, give the following directions: "I am going to ask you to complete some statements. Each of you will take a turn completing these statements. Please do not discuss the statements or make any further response to them."

I'm glad you're a member of this organization because . . .

I think your most valuable contribution has been . . .

I would like to work together with you on . . .

What I enjoy least about my participation is . . .

What I enjoy most about my participation is . . .

I would like this organization more if . . .

Activity--Organization

When the dyads have completed this exercise, suggest to the group that the entire organization may find it useful to consider some of these statements.

Questions for discussion

1. How much time does your organization spend in group building activities?

2. What are some of these activities and who participates in them?

3. Have or could they be helpful? In what way?

Module II. Decision-Making

Objective

To teach a rational approach to decision-making for both individual and organizational use.

Concepts

1. There is a rational approach to decision-making. Informed decisions require a thoughtful process.

2. Effective decision-making presumes an openness to reevaluate the outcome of decisions made.

3. Time can be an important factor in decision-making.

4. Decisions should be made when the greatest number of alternatives are available with which the individual or organization can cope.

5. Too few alternatives can result in impulsive decision-making; too

many alternatives can be overwhelming and delay the decision-making process.

There are seven key steps to effective decision-making:

1. Identify the problem.
2. Choose to act on the problem identified.
3. Gather all relevant information.
4. Generate alternatives.
5. Evaluate each alternative in terms of desired outcomes.
6. Select an alternative.
7. Commit the alternative to action.

Activity--Individual decision-making

Ask each participant to analyze a past decision. Encourage her to look at the process by which the decision was made rather than judge the worth of the decision. She should consider the following items in this analysis:

1. The number of alternatives that were considered.
2. The amount of information gathered about each alternative.
3. The personal factors which affected the alternatives such as values, interests, abilities.
4. The environmental factors which affected the alternatives such as time, place, money, expectations of others.
5. The method used to evaluate alternatives.
6. The perspective from which the decision was made. (Were long-range implications considered?)

7. The level of commitment to the decision. (Was the decision implemented?)

Activity--Group decision-making

The following are some organizational impediments to effective group decision-making:

1. Members are not encouraged to voice differing opinions. Conflict is viewed as destructive and is not seen as a way of generating alternatives.

2. Time is spent discussing information.

3. Individual members feel a lack of involvement that may result from such factors as doubt about the importance of the decision, lack of certainty about the implementation of the decision, little or no feedback on the consequences of previous decisions.

4. The organization fails to evaluate decisions in relation to its goals and purposes.

The purpose of this activity is to examine how decision-making styles and outcomes can vary when participants are provided with the same information.

Divide the participants into small groups. Suggest a decision to be made by the groups. The decision should involve a group concern such as disbursement of funds or determination of committee tasks, and you should provide three possible alternatives for the groups to consider. Tell the groups that they can request any information they would like concerning this decision within a certain time limit (8-10 minutes). You will act as a resource person for information, and all requests for information must

be generated from the group. You will give only the information that is specifically asked for, and only during the allotted period of time.

After the question period, in which all groups have had access to the same information, allow the groups a specific period of time (15 minutes) in which to arrive at a decision. Encourage them to arrive at a consensus. Then ask each group to share its decision with the total group.

When each group has reported, ask each group to examine how the members arrived at their decision by asking the following questions.

Questions for discussion

1. What information was useful to the group in making this decision?
2. Was there information the group needed, but failed to request?
3. Did all members actively participate?
4. How were conflicts resolved?
5. How much time was spent discussing issues extraneous to the topic?
6. How comfortable did members feel with the group's decision?
7. Were all group members' opinions valued?

You can then use responses to the questions to generate discussion about the importance of using a systematic approach to decision-making.

Module III. Assertiveness Training

Objectives

To teach participants to distinguish passive, aggressive, and assertive responses. To help participants learn ways in which they can assert themselves within their organizations.

Concepts

1. To be assertive means to communicate in an open, honest, direct, and appropriate manner.

2. Women have been socialized to assume a relatively passive response mode. This sometimes makes it difficult for them to assert themselves in an organizational setting.

3. The ability to communicate assertively is essential to effective leadership.

4. Assertive behavior is based on the assumption that each individual's rights are equal to those of others. A passive response is one in which the individual allows others to impose their rights on her. The aggressive response is one in which the individual imposes her rights on others.

Activity--Individual

Ask participants to identify the way in which they most typically respond in the following situations:

1. You are asked to chair a committee in which you have no interest.

2. A vote is being taken by hand and you are in the minority.

3. Nominations for a slate of officers are open--you want to be nominated.

4. Your best friend is being criticized for lack of attendance at meetings. She is not present.

5. The President of the organization has asked everyone to contribute money to a cause you do not wish to support.

6. Volunteers are requested to represent the organization at the national convention. You would like to go.

Then ask participants to classify their responses as passive, aggressive, or assertive. Participants should then model the three types of responses for each situation.

Questions for discussion

1. What reasons do people give for not being assertive?
2. What do you feel are your rights as a member of this organization?
3. How do you feel when you respond in a nonassertive way?

You should then discuss and demonstrate ways of formulating assertive responses. Encourage participants to share situations in which they would like to be more assertive.

Activity--Organization

This module may be concluded with a discussion of the ways in which the organization as a whole could become more assertive. For example, how does the organization respond to adverse criticism?

Module IV. Goal Setting

Objective

To teach participants how to set goals.

Concepts

1. Setting goals gives both the individual and the organization direction by clarifying the difference between where they are at present

and where they hope to be.

2. Goals must be attainable.

3. Persons working toward goals must be committed to them.

4. Goals should be stated in specific and concrete terms so that progress toward their attainment can be measured.

5. Goals must be readily translatable into a series of planned activities.

Activity--Individual

Request each participant to set a goal concerning how she would like to change her involvement within the organization. For example, would she prefer to assume more or fewer responsibilities? Does she desire more recognition? Does she wish to have more or less influence over other members?

Then ask for volunteers to share their responses with the entire group. Next, have participants translate their broad goal statements into specific objectives by considering the following questions:

1. How committed are you to this goal?

2. How realistic is this goal?

3. Are you dependent on others for attainment of this goal?

4. What obstacles must you overcome?

5. By what date would you like to have accomplished this goal?

6. What specific steps are required to attain this goal? (Suggestion: Group brainstorming may be helpful to generate strategies for attaining the goal.)

7. Given your responses to the previous questions, do you need to restate your goal?

Instruct the participants to compare this process for setting goals with previous methods they have used.

Activity--Organization

Have participants from the same organization reassemble with the other members of their organization. Each group then discusses how to apply the process the members have just learned to the setting of goals within their organization.

Module V. Conflict Resolution

Objective

To teach participants ways of recognizing conflict and coping with it constructively.

Concepts

1. Individuals and organizations should anticipate that conflicts will occur and recognize that conflict can serve useful purposes.

2. Some sources of conflict within an organization are differing opinions, differing levels of commitment, desire for power, role confusion, lack of skills, and value differences.

3. Conflicts can manifest themselves in ways that do not reflect their actual source and therefore need careful analysis.

4. If conflicts are ignored or not understood, the results can be

isolation, withdrawal, polarization, reduced interaction.

Activity--Organization

Present to the group examples of typical organizational conflicts. (Suggestion: These examples could take the form of case studies.)

Now ask the group to review these conflict situations.

Questions for discussion

1. How was the conflict manifested?
2. Under what circumstances did the conflict originate?
3. Who was involved in the conflict?
4. When was the conflict acknowledged?
5. How did this conflict affect other members?
6. What was the organization's initial response?
7. How was the conflict resolved?
8. What was learned from this conflict?
9. How did the organization benefit from recognizing and resolving this conflict?

Activity--Individual

Ask individual participants to recall a recent personal conflict and reflect on how they coped with this conflict, i.e., did they withdraw, get angry, become indifferent? Have volunteers share their coping styles with the group. Discuss with the group how these responses to a personal conflict situation are similar to or different from their responses to conflict within the organization.

Module VI. Communication Skills

Objectives

To broaden participants' definition of communication. To teach specific communication skills.

Concepts

1. Communication is both verbal and nonverbal, written and oral, and includes both speaking and listening.

2. Factors that influence communication are language usage, perceived power or influence, time, individual frame of reference, amount of information, stereotypes, setting, willingness to listen, readiness to consider alternative viewpoints.

3. Communication is a two-way process, involving both a sender and receiver of a message.

4. Patterns of communication within a group dramatically affect its functioning.

5. Communication can be formal or informal and can be classified as cognitive or affective.

Activity--Individual

Listening skills. Ask someone in the group to model poor listening. Then ask participants how they know when they have been listened to. Discuss together the skills that an effective listener possesses. Topics to include in this discussion are: the difference between active and passive listening; attending skills, including nonverbal aspects such as

body posture or eye contact; and the like.

Have participants form triads in which individuals will alternately assume the role of speaker, listener, and observer. Provide the observer with a rating sheet. Possible topics for discussion are: how I see myself as a leader, how I think others see me as a leader, and what I'm learning about my leadership skills.

After the interaction within the triads, you should model good listening. Ask for a volunteer and actively listen as the volunteer discusses one of the topics listed above. Active listening involves your full attention to what the speaker says. Maintain good eye contact, reflect on what the speaker says so that she knows she has been heard. Then ask participants to compare their performance in their triads with the model of good listening that you presented.

Effective feedback. Introduce the topic by discussing and demonstrating the components of an effective feedback process. Include in the presentation the following characteristics of what effective feedback should be:

1. Descriptive, rather than evaluative.
2. Stated in positive, rather than critical terms.
3. Focused on behavior that occurs in specific instances, rather than on behavior in general.
4. Addressed to characteristics the individual is able to change.
5. Timely.

After a discussion of the above, have the group discuss the benefits of learning how to give effective feedback. Then ask participants to

return to their triads and practice giving good feedback. Conclude this activity with a discussion about the effectiveness of the feedback given by members of their organizations.

Questions for discussion

1. What happens when members give each other poor feedback?
2. How does that affect the organizational climate?
3. How might things be different if members gave good feedback?
4. In what situations is poor feedback most likely to occur?
5. How can you encourage other members to give more constructive feedback?

Activity--Organization

Provide participants with a list of roles that members usually fill in organizations. Include in the list such labels as harmonizer, pleader, questioner, initiator, clarifier, and dominator. Then have participants consider who in their organizations usually fills these roles. Follow with a discussion about the influence of these roles on communication patterns within the groups.

Questions for discussion

1. Is the same person always in the same role?
2. Does the role change according to setting, composition of the group, or topic under discussion?
3. How do these roles affect communication patterns within the organization?

4. What benefit or detriment is derived from the various roles?

Note: Facilitators for this module may wish to incorporate other activities on communication skills. Such topics as attending to nonverbal communication, using questions, and labeling feelings would be highly appropriate as supplemental activities.

D. Structured Experiences

The purpose of the structured experiences is to give participants opportunities to integrate and apply the concepts and skills learned in the assessment and modules. Participants can practice new skills in a sheltered environment where they can receive constructive feedback. From the offerings available, participants choose those which they consider to be most beneficial. The following are recommended structured experiences. The description for each includes objectives and procedures.

1. Conducting a Meeting

Objective

To familiarize participants with the techniques of running successful meetings. These include:

Developing agendas

Using parliamentary procedure

Planning strategies

Delegating responsibility

Pacing the meeting

Assuring continuity

Reaching closure

Procedure

Provide participants with an account of a hypothetical meeting. The account will include a description of not only the topics covered and their degree of resolution, but also members' reactions to what occurred. Using that information, assign roles to participants. Their task is to plan and conduct the succeeding meeting. Throughout the exercise, be on hand to observe and instruct participants.

2. The First Meeting

Objective

To have participants formulate a group given few guidelines and structure.

Procedure

Divide participants at random into groups of six. Tell them only that they have been selected to serve on a committee whose purpose is to advise the Dean of Students on the status of campus women's organizations. How do they begin?

3. The Real Reason I'm Here . . .

Objective

To demonstrate the effect of hidden agendas on group activity.

Procedure

Divide participants into groups of 10-12. Tell them that the purpose of the meeting is for members to complete a task chosen by you. Give half of the participants a statement that the real purpose for being at the meeting is other than the announced purpose. After a specified time period, stop the discussion and ask participants to guess the hidden agendas. Discuss the effect those hidden agendas had on group communication.

4. Divided Loyalties

Objective

To demonstrate the influence of members' allegiances on group process.

Procedure

Open the workshop with a definition of reference groups. Have participants consider the various groups with which they identify. Then assign to various volunteers fictional profiles of group members that include a description of the reference groups to which each person belongs. Have the volunteers discuss a current controversial topic playing the assigned roles. Other participants observe this group discussion and take note of how the group activity was influenced by individual member's reference groups. Follow with discussion.

5. Here's Looking at You . . .

Objective

To teach participants how to identify the various communication roles individuals assume in problem-solving.

Procedure

Divide participants into two groups. Give one group a problem-solving task. The other group observes the interaction of the problem-solving group. After the task is completed, observers and players discuss what roles individuals assumed in the problem-solving situation.

6. We Agree!

Objective

To familiarize participants with the steps involved in arriving at consensus.

Procedure

Give participants, in groups of 8-10, a list of six issues that affect women such as job rights, child care, women's health, divorce laws, and ask them to rank the issues according to their estimate of the degree of importance of each. Instruct them first to complete the ranking individually and then to rank the issues as a group. After they have completed the ranking, participants examine what occurred during this process.

7. A Goal is Not Forever . . .

Objective

To illustrate the necessity for evaluating goals.

Procedure

Divide participants into groups of 8-10. Provide them with a hypothetical situation in which an organization has a goal, and there is a description of the goal and the steps this organization plans to take to reach it. Also include a summary of what has taken place in the organization since the goal was first developed. Based on this information, ask participants to reevaluate this goal as if they were members of the described organization. After participants have reevaluated the goal, ask them to provide a rationale for their decision.

VI. METHOD FOR IMPLEMENTING "OWLS"

Occasional reference has been made in the preceding section as to how portions of the OWLS program would be implemented. Within this section several program implementation activities are discussed. They include participant selection, staff recruitment and composition, program facilities, program format, workshop materials preparation, and program follow-up.

Participant Selection

The OWLS program model is designed for college women who are, will soon become, or have the potential to become leaders of their organizations. Program participants should be women who are members of emerging and established organizations, and of organizations with varying purposes.

A program goal is to provide women with knowledge and skills which they can use to become more effective leaders and to make their organizations more effective. In order for the program to have maximum impact on an organization, the OWLS program model requires that each organization invited to attend send no fewer than two participants.

We do not suggest a limit on the maximum number of program participants. The expertise and numbers of staff available to conduct the program, however, will greatly influence the numbers of participants you can invite.

Staff Recruitment and Composition

Few of us possess boundless energy, unlimited time, and expertise in assessment and skills identified in the module topics. Therefore, it becomes important for the program organizer to assemble a staff who will help with program implementation. We suggest that you recruit a staff that includes "experts" in the organizational and individual assessment topics as well as persons who possess the group process skills necessary to lead the small group assessment workshops, the skill modules, and the structured experiences.

Recruit staff members from your student personnel colleagues; from faculty members in departments of speech communication, organizational behavior, and counselor education; and from women with acknowledged leadership expertise. This latter category refers to women in the local community who are successful business, civic, church, or academic leaders. Since most of the assessments, skill modules, and structured experiences are conducted in small groups of seven to ten people, it is important to have one staff member for every small group of participants.

Facilities

We feel that an OWLS program ideally should be held away from the participant's home environment. This change of setting and pace minimizes outside interruptions and permits the participants to focus on learning and skill building.

Choose a facility for a program that includes a convenient location, a reception area, a large meeting room, and adjacent small group meeting rooms.

Nearby or on the premises there should be accommodations for eating, sleeping, and recreation/socializing. The large meeting room should be equipped with a chalkboard, a podium or lectern, an amplification system, and several tables surrounded by about ten movable chairs. The small group rooms should contain a chalkboard, movable chairs, and a table.

Format

We suggest that the OWLS program be held over a 3-day period. If participants need travel time to reach the program location, this format works well. The proposed sequence of activities is as follows:

First Day

Afternoon session:	Introduce the program
	Learn the expectations that participants have for the program
	Begin organizational skills assessment
Evening session:	Complete organizational skills assessment (if needed)
	Social Activities

The program staff spends this evening reviewing the organizational assessments completed by each participant and making initial assignments to the skill modules and structured experiences.

Second Day

Morning session: Introduce the individual assessment portion of the program

Conduct the individual assessments

At the close of this session, the staff reviews the individual assessments and makes final assignments to the skill modules and structured experiences.

Afternoon session: Introduce the skill modules portion of the program

Conduct the skill modules

(The program design should permit several skill modules to be offered concurrently.)

Evening session: Social activities

Third Day

Morning session: Introduce the structured experiences

Conduct the structured experiences

(Several structured experiences will be offered concurrently.)

Instruct participants to complete their action plans

Conclude the program

Suggested mode of presentation. Each of the organizational and individual assessment topics should be introduced via lecturette to the assembled program participants. Use the large meeting room containing tables and movable chairs for this part of the program. Conduct the actual assessment activities in small groups seated around the tables. Each group is to be led by an assessment facilitator.

The skill modules require a facilitator to introduce and explain the module activities. When modules focus on individual skills, the activities are done in dyads, triads, or by participants on their own. When the modules focus on group skills, some activities require the assignment of all members of an organization to a group; other activities take place in small groups to which persons have been randomly assigned.

The structured experiences involve groups of 8-10 or 10-12 persons assigned to each group without regard to their organizational membership. As with the skill modules, each structured experience is introduced and led by a workshop facilitator. Small-group rooms are used for both the modules and the structured experiences.

Workshop Materials

The materials for an OWLS program consist of an orientation packet for each participant, worksheets for the organizational and individual assessments, skill module and structured experience handouts, plan of action worksheets, and evaluations. Below is a brief description of these materials.

The orientation packet should contain a program schedule and statement of purpose, the assessment worksheets, the plan of action worksheet, and an evaluation. You should prepare assessment worksheets for each of the organizational and individual topics and should list the questions which participants are to discuss.

It is desirable for the facilitators of the skill modules and the structured experiences to have handouts describing the workshop activities when facilitators are to provide their groups with additional information, as in the decision-making module. This information should be prepared beforehand.

The plan of action worksheet is critical in helping participants apply the skills they have learned to their organizational settings and to their own lives. On the sheet each participant identifies improvement areas for her organization and for herself. She should indicate how these improvements will be implemented, by when, with whose help, and with which skills that she has learned. Ask each participant to leave a copy with you.

Finally, you should prepare a form for evaluating the program. Questions pertaining to the program content, length, sequence of activities, and staff are appropriate.

Follow-up

Approximately 6 to 9 weeks following the program, contact each participant for feedback. Attempt to learn how she is progressing with her plan of action worksheet, what new skills she is using and how

frequently, which skills she would like to learn more about, and what concepts and activities have had lasting impact. The results of such an inquiry can lead to refinements in your program and to planning of additional training programs.

VII. ADAPTATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The method presented above is the recommended format for the delivery of our integrated leadership skills program. This model, containing organizational and individual assessments, skill modules, and structured experiences, allows the participant not only to evaluate her present status but also to work on developing the skills she chooses to improve. Although the program could be abbreviated, facilitators using the program should include some aspects of both the assessment and the skill modules. If both aspects are not included, integration will not occur.

OWLS can be adapted for use by a single organization rather than a number of organizations as has been suggested. The program can also be used with mixed-sex groups, with the addition of an assessment of how men and women view each other in leadership roles and an exploration of the differences in male and female leadership behaviors.

While we recommend that the program be presented in a concentrated block of time, a different time frame could be utilized if it is difficult to schedule three consecutive days. For example, the program could be presented in a series of meetings if you are working with one organization.

It may also be possible for you to integrate the OWLS program into an existing program on your campus such as orientation courses, student government retreats, or undergraduate residence staff training. If your campus resources are limited, consider presenting the program in cooperation

with community groups such as Y.W.C.A., A.A.U.W., or with other local colleges. Women civic leaders are a valuable resource in addition to your professional colleagues.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of OWLS is to help counselors develop and deliver leadership skills training for women. This program provides counselors with a means for integrating the individual and organizational aspects of leadership training.

The program benefits not only the participants but also the organizations they represent. Participants are able to take back to their own organizations specific techniques for enhancing the leadership skills of their members. Much of the learning that occurs in this program comes through the interaction participants have with each other and with the facilitators. Not only do women frequently doubt their own leadership capability, they also lack confidence in other women as leaders. In an experience such as OWLS women learn a new respect for their own capabilities and an appreciation of other women's achievements. Women leave this program feeling more comfortable with their role as leader and more capable of assuming and implementing that role.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

American Association of University Women. Tool catalog techniques and strategies for successful action programs. 1972.

This document describes how-to of organizational activities from fund-raising to sit-ins.

Bartol, K. Male versus female leaders: The effect of leader need for dominance on follower satisfaction. Academy of Management Journal, 1974, 17, 225-233.

The study examined the effect that high or low dominance in female or male leaders had on the satisfaction of subordinates. All male follower groups were significantly more satisfied with a high need for dominance female leaders with regard to their satisfaction with team interaction. Satisfaction with task structure was higher in groups with high need for dominance male leaders and followers than in mixed-follower groups. Women in those groups had low satisfaction scores.

Bartol, K., & Wortman, M. Males versus female leaders: Effects on perceived leader behavior and satisfaction in a hospital. Personnel Psychology, 1975, 28, 533-547.

This paper focuses on (1) the extent to which leader behavior as perceived by subordinates differs for female and male leaders, (2) the extent that subordinates of male versus female leaders differ in satisfaction with various aspects of their jobs, and (3) the relationship between perceptions of male versus female leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction with supervision.

Bartsch, K., Yost, E., & Girrell, K. Effective personal and career decision-making. New York: Westinghouse Learning Corporation, 1976.

The authors' approach to decision-making is rational/behavioristic. They focus on the importance of learning behavioral self-management skills and provide the reader with theory and concepts as well as useful exercises for student use.

Bloom, L., Coburn, K., & Pearlman, J. The new assertive women. New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1975.

The information about assertiveness provided in this paperback would be appropriate for use by counselors and those who want to become assertive. In addition to a conceptual framework, the authors present strong practical information, using many plausible examples throughout the 14 chapters.

Breckinridge, S. Women in the twentieth century. New York: ARNO Press, 1972. (Originally published, 1933.)

This book presents the developments in activities and relationships of women other than those incidental to family life. The author focuses on women's varied organizations, their search for gainful occupation, and their relationship to government. Particular attention is given to the club movement preceding specialized groups. The former is described through a chronological report from publications, records, and proceedings of organizations, while the latter encompasses a summary of developments within organizations through World War I.

Britton, V., & Elmore, P. Leadership and self-development workshop for women: A research report. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, Chicago, April 1976.

This study was conducted to determine if the Leadership and Self-Development Workshop for Women changed the participants' attitudes toward leadership and toward issues that are identified with the concerns of women today. The results indicated that the participants in the workshop exhibited more leadership qualities and more liberal feminist attitudes after the workshop than before.

Bullard, P., & Cook, P. Sex and workstyle of leaders and followers: Determinants of productivity. Psychological Reports, 1975, 36, 545-546.

Fiedler hypothesizes that a leader's effectiveness is determined by the interaction of leader workstyle and three aspects of the situation: the structure of the task, the sanctioning power of the leader, and relationship with followers.

These researchers predicted that, given Fiedler's theory, task-oriented leaders would be most productive, opposite-sex leaders would interfere with productivity, and most productive teams would enjoy the task most. Only the last hypothesis was supported.

Caplow, T. How to run any organization. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1976.

This book cites studies indicating that a strong chairperson is most preferred by committee members. Caplow defines a strong chair as one who poses many questions, speaks more to the whole group than to individuals, defines the issues, proposes solutions, keeps discussion on the track, relates the amount of discussion to available time, and attempts to reach and to summarize group decisions. It is useful in discussion of leadership styles, and how to conduct meetings.

Chafe, W. Women and equality: Changing patterns in American culture. New York: Oxford University Press, 1972.

In a series of essays the author describes the evolution of the 20th-century American system of sex roles and the process through which change in that system is now taking place. The principal focus is the nature of social control and social change, with women and their experience as a primary reference. The essays discuss a series of conceptual problems central to defining the scope of women's history: a schematic overview of women's history from colonial times to the mid-20th century, an analogy of sex and race as social controls, a comparison of the contemporary women's movement with movements of the past, and a consideration of some of the obstacles to sex equality.

Chapman, J., & Luthans, F. The female leadership dilemma. Public Personnel Management, 1975, 4, 173-179.

This review of research suggested no difference between male and female leadership styles, but a difference in leadership behaviors. (Women leaders were more accommodating.) Neither men nor women think very highly of abilities of female leaders. Leadership effectiveness is dependent on self-image, work-group acceptance, and the situation. In order to increase the number of effective female leaders, several actions must be taken. Well-qualified women should be given adequate training. The work group and the organization should also have the opportunity to change through team building, sensitivity training, and behavior modification techniques.

Chemers, M. The relationship between birth order and leadership style. The Journal of Social Psychology, 1970, 80, 243-244.

The researcher administered Fiedler's least preferred co-worker (LPC) form to university students to examine the relationship of birth order and adult leadership. Results showed that first-borns are more task-oriented and later-borns are more concerned with relationships and social orientations.

Coleman, M., McElroy, D., & Whitehurst, C. Sex differences in the perception of leadership in small groups. Paper presented at the meeting of the Pacific Sociological Association, Spring 1973, University of California, Riverside.

The study included both same-sex and mixed-sex groups. In mixed groups men were more often chosen as leader by both themselves and others. In all-male and in all-female groups the patterns for choosing a leader, or being chosen as leader, as well as reactions to sharing ideas, were similar. This suggests that perceptions of leadership are subjective, in that leaders are chosen on the basis of "maleness" and not task-oriented ability. Also, the performance of women in single-sex groups does not support the "fear of success" idea.

Danish, S., & Hauer, A. Helping skills: A basic training program. New York: Behavioral Publications, 1973.

This is a handbook for persons who want to become skilled helpers. A series of six modules is presented; each focuses on an aspect of the helping process. Specific activities in each stage are complemented by goal statements, a rationale, and an expected attainment level.

Day, D., & Stogdill, R. Leader behavior of male and female supervisors: A comparative study. Personnel Psychology, 1972, 25, 353-360.

The leader behavior of male and female civilian supervisors at U.S. Air Force bases was described and evaluated by subordinates who perceived both sexes as equally effective and similar in patterns of leader behavior. It appeared that the rate of advancement was slower for females, not for lack of leader behaviors or effectiveness but because of their sex.

Denmark, F. Styles of leadership. Presidential address for Division 35 presented at the annual convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, D.C., September 1976.

This paper focuses on women and the kinds of leaders which emerge in different kinds of groups. It reviews research to show that a major difference between male and female managers is one that should be considered advantageous for women: women in leadership positions have a greater concern for relationships among people than do men. She also concludes that women are, and can be, effective leaders. However, they need increased experience and exposure to overcome stereotypes.

Denmark, F., & Diggory, J. Sex differences in attitudes toward leaders' display of authoritarian behavior. Psychological Reports, 1966, 18, 863-872.

Members of fraternities and sororities were asked to complete questionnaires about their leader's actual behaviors and their concept of ideal behaviors of leaders. The statements to which they responded were constructed to reflect similarity to or differentiation from an authoritarian leadership style. Findings showed that male leaders demonstrated and received approval for more authoritarian behavior than did female leaders. The same subjects responded to descriptive statements about characteristics of "good" leaders. These ratings were quite different from their statements about present leaders' behaviors.

Denmark, F. L., McKenna, W., Juran, S. & Greenberg, H. M. Status and sex differences in nonverbal behavior. Unpublished research, 1976.

This was a pilot study of nonverbal interactions of male and female University staff and students. Contrary to the results of other nonverbal studies, these researchers found no differences between males and females on any of the cues measured (smiling, arms moving, forward lean, eye contact, head nodding, back lean, straight lean, object manipulation, and self-manipulation).

DiMarco, N., & Whitsitt, S. A comparison of female supervisors in business and government organizations. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1975, 6, 185-194.

This exploratory study compared the lifestyle and interpersonal need orientation, leadership style, and perception of the organization structure of female supervisors in business and government organizations.

Dorling, J. Making a start on training for women. Personnel Management, 1975, 7, 18-22.

Part of the article presents facts on the imbalance of males and females presently in training programs. Women predominate only in traditional "female" occupational training programs, primarily those which require training of short-term duration. Dorling then discusses the Training Services Agency and its aim to expand women's training opportunities in nontraditional occupations.

Dyer, W., & Vriend, J. Counseling techniques that work: Applications to individual and group counseling. Washington, D.C.: APGA Press, 1975.

The second part of this practical handbook for counselors is on group counseling. One chapter focuses on leadership skills for group counselors. Twenty specific skills are listed and explained in the chapter. In addition, some ineffective applications of the skills are mentioned in the presentation.

Eskilson, A., & Wiley, M. Sex composition and leadership in small groups. Sociometry, 1976, 39, 183-194.

Three-person groups were used to examine the leader behavior of males and females. The independent variables were leader sex, means of attaining the leader role (either achieved or appointed), and sex composition of the members. Traditional sex role stereotypes did affect leader performance. However, females who were "achieved" leaders were as intense as male leaders in directing the group effort. Females who became leaders by chance seemed to conform to the stereotypic expectations of female behavior: Their leadership performance was minimal. Both male and female leaders performed more leader-like functions when with members of their own sex.

Ferriss, A. L. Indicators of trends of the status of American women. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1971.

The book provides statistical comparisons over time regarding trends in the status of women relative to the status of men. It is organized around many life experiences including education, marriage, fertility, work, employment, income, organizational activities, recreation, health, illness, and death. Major statistical comparisons relevant to each topic are presented, discussed, and illustrated.

Flexner, E. Century of struggle: The woman's rights movement in the United States. Cambridge: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 1966.

This historical account of the women's movement focuses on developments between 1800 and 1920. A foundation for understanding the suffrage movement is developed through tracing the education of women, the beginnings of organization among women, and reform efforts of the first half of the 19th century. The movement itself is viewed through the involvement of women in various areas including their intellectual progress, the movement in the west, and their participation in organized labor, and ultimately by an examination of the suffrage movement from 1900-1920--with the major portion devoted to a discussion of the final 12 years of the woman suffrage movement.

Freeman, J. The politics of women's liberation. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1975.

The book provides an analysis of political and social developments of the women's movement and the resultant policy impacts. As a theorist and participant observer of the movement the author develops a social/organizational paradigm through which to view the organizational development of women's groups which she puts into two major categories: the development of the younger branch and the older branch. She emphasizes the structural and philosophical differences of the two, the former being composed of small groups often relying upon participatory democracy and the latter consisting of prominent and large organizations utilizing a defined organizational structure and decision making process.

Gitter, A. G., Black, H., & Goldman, A. Role of nonverbal communication in the perception of leadership. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 1975, 40, 463-466.

University students were shown a film of an actor delivering a 300-word speech. Half the subjects saw the delivery given with "superior" role behaviors; the other half saw the nonverbal actions from a "subordinate" delivery. The results indicate that the mode of delivery and nonverbal communication have a significant effect on perception of leadership.

Greenleaf, E. The role of women in education--responsibility of educated women. Educational Horizons, 1973, 52, 77-81.

The article focuses on the need for women to assume tasks necessary to provide leadership in the educational world.

Halas, C. All-women's groups: A view from inside. The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1973, 52, 91-95.

This article provides an explanation of why women are more effective in all-women groups, citing Bardwick, Broverman, and others re male and female models. The premise is that all-women groups will help develop a model of cooperation rather than the existing model of competition.

Harris, A. The TORI model of change and the changing woman. Training and Development Journal, 1975, 29, 22-31.

The author and a colleague attended a workshop utilizing the TORI (trust, openness, relaxation, interdependence) method to determine its effectiveness in helping women move toward their human potential. In spite of the emphasis on freedom of the individual, the norms reinforced many traditional sex-role stereotypes.

Hennig, M., & Jardim, A. The managerial woman. Garden City, New York: Anchor Press, 1977.

The authors discuss the different backgrounds and assumptions that men and women bring to their work experiences and how these differences affect career development. A study of 25 successful women managers identifies the background and behaviors that contributed to their success. Recommendations for making women more effective and for increasing corporations' and male managers' understanding of working women are offered.

Hottes, J. H., & Kahn, A. Sex differences in a mixed-motive conflict situation. Journal of Personality, 1974, 42, 260-275.

In the prisoner's dilemma game the expectation was that males would be more cooperative and more imitative of each other than women. When able to communicate, males would talk about strategy matters and consequently enhance levels of cooperation and imitation; women would discuss nonstrategic matters and show less change in game behavior. All predictions were supported. Results suggest males are success-oriented and opportunistic. Cooperative behavior appears to be an attempt to maximize their gains. Females are more socially oriented; the choice of a competitive response appears to be a defensive measure in a situation where their primary goal of social interaction is restricted.

Jacobsen, M., & Effertz, J. Sex roles and leadership: Perceptions of the leaders and the led. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1974, 12, 383-396.

The authors hypothesized that when the performance level of groups does not meet the members' expectations, the individual would be negatively valued. In this study males were judged more harshly than females when both were functioning as leaders. However, they were judged more leniently than females when both were followers. Males and females did not differ in their enjoyment of the leadership position.

Joreen (pseudonym for J. Freeman). The tyranny of structurelessness. In The Second Wave, Vol. 2, No. 1. Reprinted by: KNOW, Inc., P.O. Box 86031, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15221.

This paper theorizes that in a structureless organization some members are likely to abuse power. The writer suggests guidelines for creating a democratic structure. This paper would be helpful in a discussion of power or structure.

Kaye B., & Scheele, A. Leadership training. New Directions for Higher Education, 1975, 3, 79-93.

A survey of 60 programs to prepare women for leadership in business and education identifies two distinct types of skills training (life-building skills, and technical and managerial skills) and offers ideas to institutions planning leadership programs. Six model programs are described and 24 are listed in the bibliography.

Koff, L. Age, experience and success among women managers. Management Review, November 1973, pp. 65-66.

Data show that two-thirds of successful women managers had work experience prior to entering the supervisory role and tended to be in their late 30's. Koff stresses that recent female graduates need a period of adjustment to corporate procedures before taking on the responsibility for supervision.

Korda, M. Power! How to get it, how to use it. New York: Random House, 1975.

This is a treatise on power which includes a chapter on women and power and their unique problems in dealing with power.

Lawson, J. D., Griffin, L. J., and Donant, F. D. Leadership is everybody's business. San Luis Obispo: Impact Publishers, Inc., 1976.

This book includes exercises, leadership theory, practical tools.

Lindskold, S., Price, R., Rubinstein, M., Bennett, R., & Foster, S. The perception of individual and group stability. Journal of Social Psychology, 1974, 93, 211-218.

104 subjects predicted the likelihood that groups or individuals would behave in a manner consistent with past action. The hypothesis that more stability would be attributed to groups than individuals was confirmed. Social learning, attributional and balance theory explanations were proposed. Unexpectedly, women perceived less stability in either groups or individuals than did males in three separate analyses.

Lloyd-Jones, E. M. Women and leadership. Journal of the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 1973, 36, 52-55.

This article briefly examines the myths which have historically relegated women to secondary positions of influence. With changing roles, relationships, and lifestyles, our current value system will have to be altered.

Lockheed, M. E., & Hall, K. Conceptualizing sex as a status characteristic: Applications to leadership training strategies. Journal of Social Issues, 1976, 32, 111-124.

This paper characterizes sex as a status characteristic, presents data supportive of the characterization, and offers suggestions for remedying the noted imbalance.

Lupton, T., & Wilson, C. S. The social background and connections of top decision makers, Manchester School of Economics and Social Studies, 1959, 27, 30-51.

A study of the social origins and interconnections of prominent leaders in British society was conducted by two sociologists. Six categories of leaders were chosen for study. The researchers examined schools attended, club memberships, and kinship connections.

Manis, L. Womanpower: A manual for workshops in personal effectiveness. Cranston, R.I.: Carroll Press, 1977.

This manual developed out of workshops held with women, primarily college students. In addition to chapters on other topics, several sections focus on assertiveness training, improving communication in interpersonal relationships, and leadership training. The purpose for each exercise is explained, the time period is given, procedures are listed, and discussion questions are included. There is a total of 37 exercises and an appendix of women's organizations.

McGregor, D. Leadership and motivation. In W. G. Bennis (Ed.), Essays of Douglas McGregor. Cambridge: MIT Press, 1966.

Leadership is a result of four variables, not solely the factor of personal characteristics. This article is useful in workshop or assessment sessions on organizational change.

Megargee, E. I. Influence of sex roles on the manifestation of leadership. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1969, 53, 377-382.

Even high dominant (Do) women were inhibited from assuming leadership in a group with low Do men on both a "masculine" industrial task and a sex-neutral task.

Miner, J. Motivation to manage among women: Studies of college students. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1974, 5, 241-250.

The author administered the Miner Sentence Completion Scale (MSCS) to students in education, business, and psychology courses at four different universities. The purpose of the study was to examine whether there were differences between males and females in motivation to manage. The scores for males and females were comparable for students in education. However, females in business administration and liberal arts scored lower than male samples. The lower scores can in part be attributed to sex discrimination, but also to differences in motivation.

Napier, R., & Gershenfeld, M. Groups: Theory and experience. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1973.

One of the chapters in this useful text on group process and skills is devoted to leadership. As with each chapter, the one on leadership begins with information providing the conceptual framework. Trait theory, position theory, and the situational perspective are examined. The functional roles, power, and styles of leaders are discussed. Suggested exercises for followers and leaders complete the chapter. An accompanying instructor's manual contains more exercises.

Ohlsen, M. M. Group counseling (2nd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1977.

This is a basic book for professionals interested in working with groups. Separate chapters focus on setting up the group, leading groups, and special types of problem clients. Other helpful topics are goal-setting, role playing, and an appraisal of group counseling.

Osborn, R., & Vicars, W. Sex stereotypes: An artifact in leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction analysis? Academy of Management Journal, 1976, 19(3), 439-449.

Two questions were addressed: (1) Do female managers behave differently toward subordinates than male managers, and (2) do female managers have a different effect on their subordinates than male managers? For this sample, the responses to both questions were negative, which agrees with some previous research, but is not supported by other field studies. It can be concluded from these results that women can be equally employed in management positions without dysfunctional repercussions in the organization.

O'Sullivan, L. Organizing for impact. Quest, 1976, 2(3), 68-80.

The author presents various alternatives that can be utilized by feminist organizations as they develop and change. Advantages and disadvantages of the approaches are discussed. O'Sullivan stresses that organizations must first determine their goals and purposes; then there will be a framework within which to evaluate the activities and projects being performed.

Petty, M. M., & Miles, R. H. Leader sex-role stereotyping in a female-dominated work culture. Personnel Psychology, 1976, 29, 393-404.

A study of directors of county-level social service organizations shows that sex-role stereotyping does exist for the leadership role. Both male and female subordinates were more satisfied with male, as opposed to female, leaders who initiated structure. However, their satisfaction was more positively related to female, rather than male, leader consideration. This also held true for male subordinates alone and female subordinates alone.

Pfeiffer, J., & Jones, J. (Eds.). A handbook of structured experiences for human relations training (6 vols.). La Jolla, California: University Associates, 1969-1977.

Every volume has 20 to 30 structured experiences. Each exercise has a primary goal identified and a detailed description for implementing the experience. Some are more elaborate than others, require more exposure to counseling activities, demand more time, or dictate a certain group size. A variety of exercises relating to leadership can be found.

Pinder, C., & Pinto, P. Demographic correlates of managerial style. Personnel Psychology, 1974, 27, 257-270.

A study of managers distributed the sample into three clusters. One group was labeled essentially autocratic. The most notable characteristic of the second cluster was their ability to organize. The third group of managers demonstrated qualities related to consultative behaviors and courteous manner. The results suggest that some individual variables could be related to different styles of managerial behavior.

Putnam, L., & Heinen, J. S. Women in management: The fallacy of the trait approach. MSU Business Topics, 1976, 24, 47-54.

The trait theory model of leadership was formulated after the characteristics of certain great male leaders were studied. The objectives derived are more often attributed to men than women, and are considered culturally acceptable for men but undesirable for women. Throughout the studies conducted in this century, self-confidence has emerged as a fairly stable characteristic of leadership. It is important to note that self-confidence is very dependent on one's situation. It can either be fostered or hindered by recognition for performance.

Essentially the trait approach does not consider anything but the personal characteristics of the leader. Since it ignores the organizational climate, the characteristics of members, and the type of task, it is too restrictive to apply to a comprehensive model for managers. Rather than stressing certain behaviors for managers, organizations should focus on providing supportive conditions for women to achieve.

Reif, W., Newstrom, J., & Monczka, R. Exploding some myths about women managers. California Management Review, 1975, 17(4), 72-79.

After pointing out some mythical statements about women managers, a review of the research differs very strongly with the notion that women managers are somehow different from men ("different" translated as inferior). The authors examined women managers from a social-psychological perspective. They conclude that male and female managers are more similar than dissimilar in their perceptions of the corporate atmosphere. Second, women managers should not be mistakenly construed to represent women in general. Third, it appears that women managers may have superior skills and attributes in some aspects of managerial effectiveness.

Ring, K., & Kelley, H. H. A comparison of augmentation and reduction in modes of influence. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1963, 66, 95-102.

Four-member teams were assigned a task; 2 members were cast in rejecting roles. Whenever a member tried to lead, the rejecting member disapproved. There was a marked reduction in attempts to lead. When confederates had accepting roles, there were many more leading attempts--even from participants who rarely led before.

Sandler, B., & Scalia, F. The relationsip between birth order, sex, and leadership in a religious organization. The Journal of Social Psychology, 1975, 95, 279-280.

A sample of male and female members of a congregation completed data on birth order and leadership position. No relationship was evident for males. However, first-born females were more likely than later-born to have served in a leadership role.

Schein, V. E. The relationship beween sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1973, 57, 95-100.

Male middle managers rated either men in general, women in general, or successful middle managers on a descriptive index. The resemblance between the descriptions of men and successful managers was significant; there was no resemblance between successful managers and women. Some evidence indicates that age and experience somewhat reduce the male stereotype for middle managers.

Schein, V. E. Relationships between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among female managers. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1975, 60, 340-344.

Women who were middle managers were asked to give descriptions of women in general, men in general, or successful middle managers. The ratings assigned to successful middle managers closely resembled those ascribed to men in general. It is important to note that the male stereotype as a successful model was strongest among women who had been in middle management less than five years. Also, women managers marked several items as equally characteristic of men and women which, in an earlier study, males had seen as more characteristic of men and successful middle managers.

Seay, R. (Ed.). The Continuum Center for Women: Education volunteerism employment. Rochester, Michigan: Oakland University, 1973. Sponsoring Agency: Kellog Foundation, Battle Creek, Michigan.

This report on educational programs for mature women describes in detail how courses can be established, staffed, financed, and kept flexible and responsive to the needs of a variety of women. The program includes the following five components: (1) psychological testing and counseling; (2) educational advising; (3) volunteer service advising; (4) employment advising; and (5) orientation interviewing. Besides offering a variety of courses, the program sponsors women's conferences, leadership training for discussion leaders, and life planning for women. The report concludes with some considerations for management.

Sommers, T. The not-so-helpless female. New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1973.

This handbook is written with latent feminist views on women's abilities to create change.

Stanton, E. (Ed.). History of women suffrage (Vol. 5). New York: New York Times, 1969. (Originally published, 1922.)

One of a series of six, this volume contains the contemporary and nonclassical account of woman's suffrage in the United States from the beginning of the present century to 1920 with the ratification of the 19th amendment. Written by leaders of the woman suffrage movement, the work provides an explicit, personal, and thorough history of the forming of the National American Woman Suffrage Association and its national conventions, and the organizing of the National League of Women Voters. The focus of the volume is on women organizing to become an influence in the political sphere and to initiate organizational changes.

Sturgis, A. F. Learning parliamentary procedure. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1953.

This valuable reference not only presents the basic mechanics on "how-to-do-it," but also includes the fundamental principles underlying parliamentary method for those who want a rationale.

The women's leadership project: A one-year training project in adult education administration. Final report. Boston University, School of Education. Sponsoring agency: Massachusetts State Department of Education. August, 1975. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 117 447)

The Women's Leadership Project represented an initial effort to combat discrimination against women in adult education, with special emphasis on adult basic education. Overall goals involved leadership development, impact, and support to: (1) recruit and prepare 10 qualified women adult educators for leadership positions in adult education, (2) develop a resource center of materials relevant to the leadership status of women in education and disseminate information broadly, and (3) develop an internal/external support system for project participants. The highly individualized program was strongly field based with emphasis on the relation between theory and practice. Project staff included one full-time and three part-time faculty representing educational management, curriculum, and adult education. Program features included a special preseminar and seminar, supervised management, internship in adult education at the local or state level, university course work, and special community impact activities. Specific listings of internships, courses, conferences/meetings/workshops attended, special impact projects, and resource center offerings are included as well as self-rating forms and progress charts. Appendixes contain a schematic representation of the project, recommended readings, preseminar schedule, educational leadership appraisal, a workshop description, job referral and placement resources, and resource center readings.

Tresemer, D. Fear of success: Popular, but unproven. Psychology Today, 1974, 7(10), 82-85.

The article explores Horner's popular research on fear of success. Several questions are raised regarding her procedures and conclusions. Other studies have shown that men are fearful, too. It appears that Horner's ratings are inconsistent. The theme of "success" is not well differentiated or specified. Concerns about the validation and contamination of the study are also raised.

Wexley, K., & Hunt, P. J. Male and female leaders: Comparison of performance and behavior patterns. Psychological Reports, 1974, 35, 867-872.

This study examines leaders in four conditions: males supervising males or females, females supervising males or females. With limitations several conclusions were drawn: (1) many similarities existed in the performance of male and female leaders; (2) female leaders released more tension, agreed more often, asked for more suggestions; (3) male subordinates felt uncomfortable under a female supervisor, worked harder; and (4) behavior of leaders did not change with sex of subordinates.